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WORTH NOTING

• NEWS AT PRESSTIME: The President signed economic stabilization legislation which authorized a 5.5 percent salary raise for Federal white-collar employees, effective in January.

By Executive action, the President canceled the 6-month delay in blue-collar pay adjustments and placed blue-collar workers within the 5.5 percent pay-raise guidelines.

The Price Commission announced new guidelines governing costs of health benefit plans. The Price Commission also held the Federal Service Benefit Plan (Blue Cross-Blue Shield) to a 22 percent premium increase, as opposed to the 34.1 percent increase previously negotiated under old guidelines.

The Civil Service Commission extended the health benefits open season to January 31, after establishing temporary premium rates (and the Government contribution) based on approved 1972 rates for BC-BS and 1971 rates for all others.

Price control authorities were asked to review proposed rate increases for all plans which requested increases. When final 1972 rates have been determined for all plans, the Civil Service Commission will hold another open season.

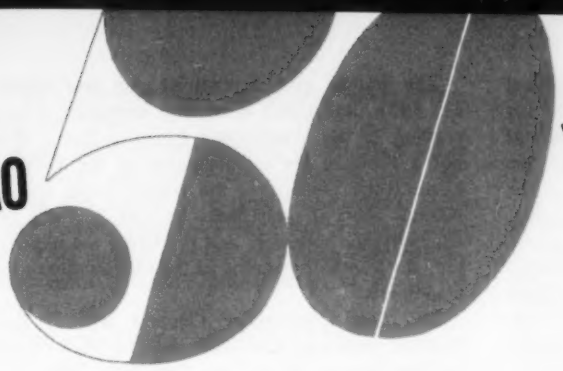
• GRANTS and MOBILITY are making news as intergovernmental personnel activities gain momentum.

As this issue of the *Journal* goes to press, 7 grants have been awarded by the Civil Service Commission to 4 State governments, 2 local governments, and the District of Columbia to upgrade the quality of public service by improving personnel systems and practices and providing training for employees.

Under mobility provisions of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act, 69 employees have been assigned—19 from State service to Federal; 31 from Federal to State; 1 from local to Federal; 5 from Federal to local; 3 from university to Federal; and 10 from Federal to university.

Joseph M. Robertson, who previously served as Acting Director, is the new Director of CSC's Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs.

Continued—See Inside Back Cover



by Elmer B. Staats
Comptroller General of the United States

FIFTY YEARS AGO last July, the General Accounting Office was set up as the independent public audit agency in order to bring about better fiscal accountability in the Federal Government. But accountability as practiced today is quite different, as we shall see, from that practiced when GAO was first organized.

The population explosion, the knowledge explosion, economic depression, hot and cold wars, problems of the inner city, computers, environmental pollution, and many other developments have brought about complex changes in our society. With this increase in complexity, an increase has taken place also in the demand for improved accountability. A more complex society demands this for all of its actions. And better accountability requires that the Federal organization whose business is accountability—the General Accounting Office—respond to those demands.

Accordingly the GAO which exists today is far different from the GAO when it was established by the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921.

The GAO developed from various attempts of the Congress, throughout its history, to develop an effective accounting and auditing procedure for the Government's expenditures. Some of GAO's responsibilities are outlined in laws which date back as far as the original Treasury Act of 1789. In fact, the need to audit Government accounts was recognized as early as 1775 by the Continental Congress. The members appointed a Committee of Accounts to "examine and report" on all claims or accounts against the new Government before payment could be made.

The fiscal management function of the new Government was established more firmly in 1778 when the offices of comptroller, auditor, treasurer, and six commissioners of accounts were created. The effects of this organization can still be seen, as many of the titles employed are still in use today and the checks and controls established bear striking resemblance to much that is now in effect in the Treasury Department.

After the Constitution was signed in 1789, the Treasury Act established the Treasury Department. It is interesting to note that although the Treasury was established as an executive department, it was placed in a closer relationship to Congress than the other departments. Auditing and collection of funds were made the responsibilities of the Comptroller and the Auditor of the Treasury.

The Comptroller was responsible for supervising the adjustment of public accounts. He also served as a court of appeals if the persons involved were dissatisfied with the original judgment.

The office of a second comptroller was created in 1817. The responsibilities of the two Comptrollers were divided between the military and civil activities of the Government. It is interesting to note that this division of responsibility closely parallels the current organization of GAO, where there are separate divisions to handle audits of the civil agencies and military department of the Federal Government.

Decades later, however, the Dockery-Cockrell Commission, convened to investigate dissatisfaction with the Treasury Department's operations, reported that "it is clear that the present mode of settling accounts does not answer the demands of public justice or economy; and it is also clear that the divided responsibility does not protect the Government."

As a result, the Dockery Act was passed in 1894. Its impact was to unify the Government's auditing activities, centralizing accounting, with preliminary examination and a single audit, and establishing the Comptroller as a court of appeals. The 1894 act provided many of the precedents for the General Accounting Office as established by the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921.

The Act was passed after a similar bill had been

MR. STAATS became Comptroller General in 1966 after 26 years of service in the Federal Government. He was previously Deputy Director of the Bureau of the Budget.

vetoed in 1920 by President Wilson. The President opposed the earlier legislation because it provided for the removal of the Comptroller General and Assistant Comptroller General by concurrent resolution of the Congress. He felt that this procedure impinged on the President's power of appointment. The new legislation provided for removal by a joint resolution, thus allowing the President to veto the decision, if he so desired.

The purpose of the Act was "to provide a national budget system and an independent audit of Government accounts." To accomplish these goals, it established the Bureau of the Budget in the executive branch to compile the President's budget and created the General Accounting Office as an independent agency of the Congress to overlook the expenditures of the executive branch.

The statutory duties previously delegated to the Comptroller and the six Auditors were vested in the office of the Comptroller General.

The Act reshaped the auditing function in the Federal Government in several ways.

(1) The responsibility to conduct audits was transferred from the Treasury Department in the executive branch to GAO in the legislative branch.

(2) The scope of the audit was broadened by requiring the Comptroller General to investigate all matters relating to the receipt, disbursement, and application of public funds, and to recommend ways to achieve greater economy in public expenditures.

(3) GAO was authorized to make reports as requested by either House of Congress or one of its committees.

The importance of the Budget and Accounting Act of 1921 is that it reflected the consistent belief throughout U.S. history that control of Federal funds should be vested in the legislative branch, the elected representatives of the taxpayers. Before GAO was established, Congress relied on the language of appropriation acts and internal checks within the executive branch to assure that funds were spent effectively. However, these methods proved to be self-limiting and self-defeating, as previously shown.

The Act established the Comptroller General as a critic, not a bookkeeper. In fact, he was so described in the legislative hearings leading to the establishment of the GAO in these words:

". . . the Comptroller General should be something more than a bookkeeper or accountant . . . he should be a real critic, and at all times should come to Congress, no matter what the political complexion of Congress or the Executive might be, and point out inefficiency."

Accordingly, he was carefully insulated against political pressures with the longest term of appointment in Government—15 years. In addition, since the President cannot remove him from office, GAO and the Comptroller General are beyond executive control.

The Budget and Accounting Act was signed June 10, 1921, and GAO went into operation July 1. According to the Washington *Evening Star,* "there was not a hitch in the establishment of the Office of the Comptroller General of the United States and the two officials were at their desks on July 1, going over the appropriation measures and preparing the papers necessary for a smooth running of the Government's financial machinery."

The first Comptroller General was J. Raymond McCarl, who had previously been private secretary to Senator George W. Norris. Lurtin R. Ginn, a career employee of the Department of the Treasury, was appointed Assistant Comptroller General.

GAO early in its history earned its reputation as a conscientious watchdog of the Government's funds. Comptroller General McCarl and Assistant Comptroller General Ginn related how the Office came into being in testimony before the Subcommittee on Independent Offices of the House Committee on Appropriations, December 19, 1921.

> Mr. Ginn: We commenced July 1, the day the General Accounting Office came into existence. We organized the night before.
>
> Mr. McCarl: There was no interruption. I was made Comptroller General late in the afternoon, and Judge Ginn's nomination was sent to the Senate that day, and that night we wrote orders which converted the old accounting offices into divisions of the General Accounting Office and they were delivered the next morning, and we commenced functioning at 9 o'clock sharp, and we have not failed in a single month to make a gain in each section and division of the establishment. It is coming thick and fast and will until we get rid of all those thousands of war time contracts and the demands of the soldiers, and the demands of the widows and orphans, and the holders of registered bonds.

As early as the 1922 Annual Report, the Comptroller General had deplored the lack of adequate office space to consolidate GAO's operations in one location. He informed the Congress:

"The supreme need of the General Accounting Office at the present is a building which will house its entire personnel of more than 2,000 persons and its records. At present the personnel and records are in 20 buildings. . . . The separation of the force works (1) for unsatisfactory administration, (2) for largely increased expenses of overhead, (3) a more or less duplication of effort, and (4) a necessarily reduced output of work. The necessity for a fireproof building that will fully meet the requirements of this office is immediate and it is hoped that Congress may soon find the way to meet the necessities and relieve this unfortunate and unbusinesslike situation."

Congress finally did alleviate this problem 30 years

later when GAO moved into its present headquarters. The year was 1951.

The early work of the General Accounting Office largely involved voucher or desk audits to verify the correctness and legality of expenditures. Federal managers and Federal employees often had the impression that the GAO auditor met the description published by the Washington *Post* in a special series of articles on the GAO in 1940:

"Imagine a bookkeeper with 307,072 ledger accounts to keep straightened out.

"In scores of rooms . . . workers spend their days chasing his pennies, reconciling what is spent with what was appropriated to be spent, checking up on his income from all sources, keeping track of the amount of gold at Fort Knox.

"The sale of every 2-cent stamp is a concern of the General Accounting Office and gets on its books eventually. Every check written by the Government comes back to its files for checking and storing. Every typewriter ribbon used in the writing of Government reports, every light bulb must 'balance' on the books."

During its first 25 years, much of GAO's work was spent in this clerical type of routine activity and 15,000 employees were needed during World War II to keep up with the expenditures of the war effort. This could not continue; something had to be done. Lindsay C. Warren, the Comptroller General from 1940 to 1954, made this statement in 1952:

"The General Accounting Office today is far different from the Office I first saw in 1940. Just about that time the Government's expenditures began increasing astronomically due to the defense and war effort. I soon concluded that the old methods could not keep pace with these accelerating operations. After V-J Day we made accounting improvement the No. 1 project of the Office. Congress supplied the necessary legislation needed with such subjects as commercial-type audits by the Comptroller General of Government corporations, improved Government property accounting and auditing, and modernization of Post Office Department accounting and auditing.

"This legislative activity was climaxed by the Budget and Accounting Procedures Act of 1950. President Truman in signing the act cited it as the most important in its field since 1921. It is a great step toward full disclosure for the benefit of the President, for the benefit of the Congress, and for the benefit of the American taxpayer of what happens to the public funds."

The Budget and Accounting Procedures Act of 1950 required improvement in accounting systems for the executive agencies of the Federal Government. Improved accounting means better fiscal accountability, but accounting is only one area of improvement. The Government Corporation Control Act of 1945 required that the General Accounting Office audit annually government corporations in accordance with the principles and procedures applicable to commercial corporate transactions. This meant that instead of having the accounts and vouchers sent to Washington, D.C., for central audit by GAO, as was done for other types of audits in the past, staff members were sent to where the records were kept. This was a radical change in GAO procedure.

Moreover, this change demanded a different type of accountant and auditor. Instead of the green eye shade, high stool, elastic arm band type of auditor, he had to be more of a professional—one who could meet situations as they arose, where they arose. Recruitment, training, and development of these professionals came to be important factors in the career pattern of the accountants and auditors of the General Accounting Office.

One of the original functions of the GAO, as directed by the 1921 Act, was "to investigate, at the seat of Government or elsewhere, all matters relating to the receipt, disbursement, and application of public funds." This function was interpreted by Congressman Luce during consideration of the bill to mean:

"It is in this particular section that we can make this clear. The section was worded, I fear, in a way that might have led some occupant of this office to imagine that his functions were purely clerical; that is, the functions implied by the word 'accountant.' The words used have the savor of the bookkeeper, of the cashier, of the treasurer, not of the investigator of the way money is spent, not of the man who goes out and looks for trouble, not of the man who attempts of his own iniative to find places to save money. Therefore I make the suggestion that we add to the words of the cashier and the treasurer and the accountant, namely 'receipt and disbursement,' the word 'application.' If there ever was presented on this floor a single word of amendment which might have a wider extent of usefulness to the people, it has not come to my knowledge."

Only when GAO's Corporation Audits Division and its successors began to carry out this responsibility in its audits of Government corporations, and eventually of other agencies and departments of the Government, did the Office consider management accountability to be an integral part of all of its audit activity. This approach did not eliminate the need for new and improved fiscal accountability, which of course is needed in every accountability system. It only decreased the emphasis on fiscal accountability and increased the emphasis on managerial accountability.

Everyone is in favor of more effective, efficient, and economical government. Most of us know that practically all day-to-day operations of any organization can be improved. The auditor is an important link in that improvement. As the President of the Federal Government Accountants Association recently said:

"The auditor's unending searches for better, less costly, and more effective ways of doing things can make him a vital force in the management of any organization that has to be concerned with survival in the competitive struggle to obtain and make the most of scarce resources."

Many of the standards needed by the auditor for evaluating the operations of the Federal Government are very complex. Such areas as the appropriate stock level for military requirements, the best methods of shipping war goods, the most efficient ways of teaching or training, and the best means of benefiting the balance of payments position can be very complex, analytical problems indeed. Others, such as the eligibility for welfare payments, unemployment compensation payments, or the consolidation of draft boards can be technical legal problems. Such cases as the number of times a tire is recapped, how often a spark plug is changed, or how often an engine is rebuilt are engineering problems. And, whether the traveler uses first class or coach air accommodations or Government or privately leased automobiles can be commonsense management decisions.

This is a small sample of the total number of management accountability activities on which GAO has reported over the years. Doubtless many similar activities could be carried out more efficiently and economically if Federal managers were held responsible under the definition of accountability previously given. Many actions of managers would be improved merely by calling the matter to their attention. This can be done by internal reviewers in the departments as well as by the GAO. Obviously, then, there is need in many agencies for strong internal auditing and internal control systems. In the past few years, many of our audit reports have dealt with the internal review activities of the various departments and agencies.

In the early 1950's, GAO began emphasizing the efficient and economical use of personnel and other resources rather than being concerned only with analyzing the fiscal affairs of the agencies audited. As the character of the work changed, so also did the characteristics of the auditor. Instead of looking only at accounts and records the GAO auditor was now looking at how public funds were being spent and for opportunities for savings.

Instead of doing routine repetitive tasks, he was continually looking at new and different management actions. As the type of education and training needed by the auditor changed, accountants with a college education became the primary source of manpower. Training emphasized the managerial accountability function and since each function is different, conceptual understanding became much more important than merely knowing how to carry out prescribed procedures.

The statement has often been made that to do well what never should have been done at all is wasted action. Thus it is often more important to a manager that his programs are effectively accomplishing their purposes than it is that his operations are economically and efficiently carried out. So in the middle 1960's program accountability became one of the watchwords of the General Accounting Office.

Program effectiveness can often be determined by analyzing the benefits of the program against the costs of the various alternative ways of accomplishing its purposes. What benefits are received for each alternative in proportion to the costs expended for that alternative? Our report on the peanut price-support program is illustrative of this point. The purpose of the Commodity Credit Corporation's (CCC) peanut price-support program is to support prices by reducing production. We reported that CCC could reduce its losses substantially if peanut prices were supported on the basis of pounds of peanuts not produced rather

than on the basis of acres taken out of production. Greater benefits would be received for the costs if the program were carried out on the basis of pounds rather than on acres since improved production methods put more pounds of peanuts on the market and required the CCC to buy more peanuts to support the prices.

Another illustration of program accountability comes from our report on the construction grant program for water pollution control. As most of you know, many grants of millions of dollars are given to States, municipalities, and other governmental agencies for the construction of waste treatment plants. We reported to the Congress that benefits received for most of the dollars spent for the construction of these plants were not as great as they could have been because many waste treatment facilities were constructed on waterways into which other major polluters—agricultural, industrial, and other municipal—continued to discharge untreated or inadequately treated waste.

Reviewing programs meant that the auditor needed an understanding of many disciplines as a background for his work, so the recruitment of auditors spread to areas other than accounting. An education in business or public administration, engineering, mathematics, operations research, or in many other fields could be used as the basis for training the auditor to analyze the effectiveness of programs. But more important, the GAO auditor learned that not only his discipline but also many other disciplines were needed for most program accountability efforts. In his program reviews he needed the help of specialists in such fields as health, pollution, welfare, inner city awareness, engineering, operations research, law, and medicine.

To stay up to date on what was going on, continuing development and interdisciplinary understanding became a way of life in the GAO. The GAO auditor broadened his understanding of Governmental operations and programs. GAO was now reviewing programs of intergovernmental accountability, the health of the Nation, drug abuses, air and water pollution, and conservation, as well as the costs of weapon systems and cost overruns. Many specialized areas of knowledge had to be used if the auditors were to look into the accountability for programs. No one auditor could know everything, but he could obtain sufficient knowledge of a program to know when an expert could help him examine into its effectiveness.

Accountability is only one area of responsibility of the General Accounting Office. There are other responsibilities, including congressional assistance, legal operations, and claims and transportation settlements. What is the reason for GAO's accountability role? It is, undoubtedly, Congress' "need to know" as a part of its oversight function.

Shouldn't the Congress also be able to obtain information concerning any subject matter when there is a need to know? GAO's role in satisfying this need of committees and Members of Congress for more information has increased dramatically during the past 10 years and will probably increase more in the future. The Legislative Reorganization Act of 1970 provided that the Secretary of the Treasury and the Director of the Office of Management and Budget, in cooperation with the Comptroller General, develop, establish, and maintain a standardized information and data processing system for budgeting and fiscal data. This system should provide the Congress and the agencies with improved fiscal information.

In addition, the Comptroller General is required to review and analyze the results of programs and activities either on his own or when ordered by the House, Senate, or any committee.

To meet these responsibilities we have in GAO today an international organization of more than 3,000 multi-talented professional staff members—engineers, mathematicians, economists—as well as auditors and

accountants. In light of the increased size of the national budget and the ever-widening scope of Government's activities, GAO's investigations cover almost every aspect of life. During fiscal year 1970, GAO made important reports in the areas of consumer protection and health, the environment, national defense, and international programs. And more and more often now, GAO reports are receiving wide readership, and GAO often finds itself in the midst of controversy.

To carry out its functions, the audit staffs at GAO are divided into civil and defense divisions, as previously stated. The civil division is further broken down by agency: most of the civil division audit staff are assigned to and work in a specific agency.

The defense division is broken down into functional subgroups representing various aspects of defense management, such as procurement, supply management, manpower, and research and development. Defense audits are usually performed within these areas and may cover activities within one or several of the military services.

Other organizational divisions in GAO include:

- The International Division, which is responsible for the administration and coordination of GAO's overseas offices.
- The Transportation Division, which performs audits of transportation payments made by the Government.
- The Claims Division, which is responsible for the settlement of claims both by and against the Government.
- The Field Operations Division, which is responsible for coordinating the activities of the 15 regional offices in providing assistance to the civil and defense audit staffs in carrying out their reviews at the installation level throughout the United States.

In addition, the Office of the General Counsel hands down decisions under the signature of the Comptroller General on the legality of contracts and Government expenditures, and interprets Government statutes, regulations, and judicial decisions. These decisions are final and conclusive on the executive branch, but not on the legislative or judicial branches.

In recent years, as we have seen, the GAO has shifted its emphasis away from examinations of individual mismanagement to some of the broader implications of Government's operations. The increased size of Government has made GAO's role that of an advisor to the agencies, suggesting to them ways to make the best use of the funds allocated to them.

To get the job done today there has to be delegation to civilian agencies, and, in the case of Defense, to the military services. This leads to more delegation of authority. The more delegation the less opportunity there is for coordination of programs. Thus, GAO's comprehensive program-wide reviews have become increasingly important in helping both department officials and Members of Congress wisely manage Government programs and allocate funds effectively.

GAO's new direction is reflected in some of its recent reports on broad management aspects and reviews of entire programs. These audits span civil and military agencies. We have come in GAO to identify such broad audits as management-type audits. This is a relatively new concept of the basic responsibility which I have already defined under the broad term of "accountability."

By now GAO has accumulated much successful experience in management and program auditing. However, we learned how to accomplish this only gradually, and to a considerable extent by trial and error—some efforts being more successful than others.

I believe that management and program auditing to be successful must start modestly and expand slowly. There must be a gradual development built on experience gained—the auditor must walk before attempting to run. That gradual development and transition from purely financial or fiscal type auditing calls for an increased involvement of staff members who have some acquaintance with such fields as administration, engineering, economics, etc. This is needed for a good understanding of operational problems.

In examining into management or operational problems, and the effectiveness of Governmental programs, the financial auditor is no longer on his home ground. He is in the territory of the manager who knows that territory much better than he does. Therefore, it behooves the auditor who is expanding his efforts beyond financial and accounting matters to develop his competence gradually but surely.

Accordingly, the auditor in the GAO in its 50th year embraces fiscal, managerial, and program accountability.

An accountability system should embrace all three elements. There must be public confidence as to fiscal integrity in the spending of public funds; there must be assurance that waste does not occur through mismanagement; and there must be an assessment of whether programs are accomplishing their intended objectives with the least cost and maximum results.

This is the area to which I strongly believe the GAO auditor has a major and increasingly important contribution to make. He has a tradition of making and reporting his findings independent of operating officials. He should be increasingly equipped with special skills which go far beyond that required for financial audits alone. And most importantly, he should be increasingly looked to by the Congress and by the executive officials for examinations and recommendations on all three aspects of accountability.

Many pieces of recent legislation have called on GAO to make special studies or evaluations of their effectiveness. These suggest that Congress realizes the value that GAO can have in making the Federal Government run more effectively and economically.

Career Counseling for Nonprofessionals

by Alfred G. Stringer

This library technician, previously a circulation desk employee, puts her skills to work in the NIH Library's Reference and Bibliographic Services Section.

UPWARD MOBILITY programs are not new in the National Institutes of Health Library. Designed to move employees out of dead-end jobs, pave the way for promotion opportunities, utilize available and potential skills, and relieve professionals of lower-grade tasks, they have offered on-the-job training that has been taken advantage of by approximately 70 staff members over the last several years.

In March 1971 a new dimension was added by initiating a counseling program for nonprofessionals.

To many people counseling means interviewing and testing by a professional counselor with whom the employee is not acquainted. Since many organizations do not have professional counselors available, it is often assumed that counseling is not possible. The Library's counseling program not only disproved this assumption, but also gave evidence that a different kind of counseling can provide considerable benefits. The regular employees who served as counselors in our program had the advantages of specific knowledge of the employees being counseled and the organization. They also had genuine interest in helping the employees get the best possible job for the education, experience, and talent they possess.

Forty-three members of the nonprofessional staff were offered the opportunity to be counseled, and to choose any one of the three counselors available. Of the 28 employees who elected to receive counseling, 21 were minority group members and 7 were nonminority. Nineteen were women and 9 were men, and they were in grades ranging from GS–1 through GS–7.

The initial step was an interview. At the interviews, employees were encouraged to rap freely with a minimum of interruption. In an informal manner geared to each individual, counselors attempted to elicit pertinent information on education, training, work experience, and aspirations. When the initial interviews were completed, the three couselors met with the Chief of the Library to analyze the information obtained and to develop "career ladders" showing the development potential of various nonprofessional positions.

After the career ladders were completed, the three counselors met to outline recommendations for career development and training for each employee in the

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MR. STRINGER is Administrative Officer of the National Institutes of Health Library.

program. When the recommendations were completed, the counselors met again with the Chief of the Library to determine the feasibility of their recommendations. Conferences were held with the immediate supervisors of each counseled employee to obtain their reactions to the recommendations, and to discuss any information they might wish to add. After the recommendations were approved, counselors held wrap-up sessions with each employee to present the recommendations and obtain feedback.

During the interviews a number of interesting facts were assembled:

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

- 9 were not high school graduates.
- 4 had 1–3 years of college work.
- 1 had 30 hours of liberal arts course work and was continuing toward a college degree.
- 2 had 8 months–1 year of business college.
- 1 had work experience in a library in high school and had taken a course in bookbinding.
- 2 expressed possible interest in obtaining graduate library degrees. Both were currently in college but each was several years away from obtaining a bachelor's degree.

WORKING PREFERENCES

- 9 wanted challenging work.
- 3 wanted routine work.
- 4 were interested in administration.
- 3 stated they did not want to be supervisors.
- 8 expressed interest in reaching the GS 6–7 level.
- 2 expressed interest in going to the GS 8–9 level.
- 4 wanted a job where they could move around.
- 2 wanted a job where they could sit down.
- 24 seemed to want to stay with the Library.
- 4 noted some interest in areas other than the Library.

DEVELOPMENT OF RECOMMENDATIONS

Using the career ladders, outside special assistance, and their own overall knowledge, the counselors made recommendations as to which career ladder offered the best opportunity for each employee and recommended training appropriate for each.

Of the 28, 15 were advised to follow the career ladder in which their current position was located, 4 were advised to consider following another ladder, and 9 were advised to stay where they were, subject to change within the foreseeable future.

TRAINING PROGRAM

To allow each employee to pursue his library career to the best of his ability, the following long-term training program was envisioned:

GS 1–4

- Individualized on-the-job training to assist each employee in realizing and utilizing his full potential in his current grade and to help him develop skills for promotion to the next grade.
- Evening classes in the USDA Library Technician program.
- Interagency training courses as applicable.

GS 5–7

- One GS–7 trainee to receive special on-the-job training and outside classroom work for a full year.
- Presentations on a weekly basis by an instructor

A man in search of information gets help from this library worker in the Reference and Bibliographic Services Section who found the NIH Library Counseling Program a steppingstone to new career opportunities.

from the University of Maryland School of Library and Information Services.

- Evening classes in the USDA Library Technician program.
- Interagency training courses as applicable.

Responses to the counselors' recommendations were, for the most part, gratifying. A number of participants seemed pleased about the increased potential for the nonprofessionals. They were interested in the career ladders and there was interest expressed in the USDA Library Technician courses. Three people enrolled for summer classes and about 15 were interested for the fall term.

THREE CASE STUDIES

The first round of counseling was completed by the end of May. Since then there have been several notable developments. Following are three case studies of employees who have begun to move forward based upon recommendations given to them during counseling.

Case 1: A GS–3 employee in the Library Copy Service expressed interest in a change. Because of demonstrated ability and a public oriented personality, she is now in a GS–4 position at the Circulation Desk.

Case 2: A GS–4 employee was tired of being tied to the phone at the Circulation Desk. She wanted very much to get into reference work and to know more about all the library tools. She is now a GS–5 member of the Reference Unit.

Case 3: A GS–5 employee was underutilized in the acquisitions area. With a college degree, she was rightly looking for a chance to advance. Though she had not previously been interested in public contact work, during counseling she expressed a willingness to have a try at it. She is now in the Reference and Bibliographic Services Section and has a potential to advance if she enjoys the work and does well at it.

The overall results of the NIH Library Counseling Program have been favorable. Most of the persons counseled are quite interested in the career ladders and the long-range potential in various areas of the Library. A number of employees are taking advantage of training opportunities, and most important, many have been motivated to begin working toward goals which have been pointed out to them. Although this approach to counseling may not be appropriate for every working group, it seems to have been quite successful for the nonprofessional employees of the NIH Library.

photo on the left

The library counseling team is shown in action at a "wrap-up" session. Two women counselors and author Alfred Stringer (standing) have a few last words of career guidance for a young man who was among the 28 employees taking advantage of the NIH program.

photo below

The counseling program has helped to lead underutilized employees into jobs more in keeping with their career backgrounds and goals. A case in point is this young woman, now a library technician at the circulation desk, formerly an office machine operator.

What are UNIONS doing to merit systems?

by David T. Stanley

AS UNIONS of public employees grow in numbers and influence, the question naturally arises, "What are unions doing to merit systems?" The question may have a tone of alarm for long-term practitioners, advocates, and beneficiaries of civil service systems. The gains of civil service, now nearing its century mark in this country, have been won and maintained with difficulty; alternatives are understandably dismaying.

We now have the results of a study of the impact of unions on public administration that throws further light on this question as it applies to local governments. Our raw material comes from about ten days of research in each of 15 cities and 4 urban counties. (*Cities:* Binghamton, N.Y.; Boston, Mass.; Buffalo, N.Y.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Dayton, Ohio; Detroit, Mich.; Hartford, Conn.; Milwaukee, Wis.; New Orleans, La.; New York, N.Y.; Philadelphia, Pa.; San Francisco, Calif.; St. Louis, Mo.; Tacoma, Wash.; and Wilmington, Del. *Counties:* Dade, Fla.; Los Angeles, Calif.; Multnomah, Oreg.; and New Castle, Del.)

The localities studied all have merit systems, but differences in strength, competence, and age of these systems were very obvious. There is great variety also in the State laws governing the conditions under which public employees may unionize and bargain. All these variations make it hard to generalize from the experience of these 19 governments, but we can present some of the patterns we found. We do not contend that these cities and counties are truly representative of all local governments, only that they show what is going on in a variety of places where unions have been active.

A mixed and moderate report results from the study. Civil service is not disappearing, nor is it fighting unions to a standstill, nor is there beautiful collaboration everywhere. In general, unions, bargaining, and contractual provisions are invading more and more precincts previously occupied only by civil service commissions or personnel offices. How good or how bad this is depends upon the value systems of the beholder.

What do we mean by merit systems? We should distinguish them from the merit principle under which public employees are recruited, selected, and advanced under conditions of political neutrality, equal opportunity, and competition on the basis of merit and competence. Public employee unions do not question this principle in general and have done little to weaken it, as yet. When we say merit systems, however, this has come to mean a broad program of personnel management activities. Some are essential to carrying out the merit principle: recruiting, selecting, policing of anti-politics and anti-discrimination rules, and administering related appeals provisions. Others are closely related and desirable: position classification, pay administration, employee benefits, and training. Unions are of course interested in both categories.

What unions are we talking about? We refer particularly to the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, the Service Employees International Union, the International Association of Firefighters, the various police associations, the nursing associations, the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, the unions of licensed practical nurses.

This article will speak rather generally of union attitudes and pressures. Some are expressed through the collective bargaining process, with the results embodied in a formal agreement; some are stated as representations to the boards of local government. Or the pressure may be more informally applied, as when a union delegation meets with a department head or a steward meets with the first-line or second-line supervisor.

THE IMPACT IN GENERAL

The major and most distinct effect of union activity is a weakening of what might be called management-by-itself. The era of unilateralism, of unquestioned

sovereignty, is about over. The age of bilateralism—consultation, negotiation, and bargaining—is already here. The "independent" civil service commission, responsible over the years for rule-making, for protection of career employees from arbitrary personnel changes, for adjudication of appeals from employees, still exists but is losing functions. Civil service commissions may not go out of business, but more and more of their vital organs will be removed by the bargaining process until, whether officially in existence or not, they are husks of their former selves. This change is occurring not because employees are clearly dissatisfied with existing merit systems but because they feel that unions will get more for them—more pay, more benefits, more aggressive protection against possible arbitrary management actions.

At the same time management is becoming more careful, more responsible, and more responsive. The fact that management at all levels is prodded, observed, objected to, and reasoned with by union stewards and business agents means that management must watch its step. Another effect is that this change from unilateralism to bilateralism brings transitional difficulties. First-line and second-line supervisors in government are not used to dealing with unions, and the unions have many inexperienced stewards who are busy fumbling hot potatoes. The passage of time and the application of effort and good will should reduce these problems.

ORGANIZATION FOR LABOR RELATIONS

Each of the governments we studied has had to provide organizationally for dealing with unions. In Hartford and Dayton, for example, the function has been clearly lodged within the city personnel office. This contrasts with Detroit and New York where a separate labor relations office operates in cooperation (and some competition) with the civil service commission. In other governments labor relations are handled by some different administrator: the corporation counsel in Binghamton, the chairman of the Board of County Commissioners in Multnomah County, and the City Manager in Tacoma.

These varied patterns of organization result from both tradition and personality. It is much too early to say that any one system works better than another, and indeed, our findings may reflect personalities rather than organization schemes. It seems natural to predict, however, that the longer labor relations functions are separated from personnel functions, the more trouble we are going to have in the future. The activities of "independent" civil service commissions intensify the diffusion of managerial authority and make union negotiations more difficult. Even more important, it is impossible for a personnel officer (or civil service executive secretary) to be both an impartial defender of employees' rights and an adversary of unions as a management negotiator. It is perfectly possible to foresee governments adopting the industrial pattern: a department of labor relations headed by a vice-mayor or assistant city manager for labor relations who will supervise not only bargaining and employee relations, but also selection and training activities.

This article, now slightly revised, originally appeared in the *Public Personnel Review*, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April 1970) from which it is reprinted with permission. Copyright (C) by the Public Personnel Association. The article is adapted from a speech to the Fifth Annual Awards Dinner of the Pennsylvania Civil Service League, Harrisburg, Pa., October 16, 1969. Miss Carole L. Cooper assisted in the research and writing. The views expressed are those of the author and do not purport to represent those of the trustees, officers, or other employees of the Brookings Institution.

The full study was published by the Brookings Institution in January 1972 under the title *Managing Local Government Under Union Pressure*, by David L. Stanley, with the assistance of Carole L. Cooper. This is one of five studies on unions, collective bargaining, and public employment sponsored by Brookings with the aid of the Ford Foundation. The others are *The Unions and the Cities*, by Harry H. Wellington and Ralph K. Winter, Jr. (Brookings 1971), and three volumes in preparation on: (1) the nature and types of unions, (2) the structure of collective bargaining, and (3) economic effects.

HIRING

We have already noted that unions accept the merit principle, and our field research shows that they are inclined to accept most of the qualification requirements and examining methods that are customarily part of the civil service system. Here and there we found some union resistance to the lowering of qualification standards, such as height requirements for policemen, high school graduation for custodians, or college degrees for caseworkers. There are various motives for such resistance: the wish to work with well-qualified associates (or with people like themselves) and the wish to argue that higher qualifications deserve higher pay.

David T. Stanley has been Senior Fellow of the Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., since 1961. Prior to his present position, Stanley served in Federal personnel and management positions for more than 22 years, most recently as Director of Management Policy, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. He also worked with the Farm Credit Administration, the Veterans Administration, the Department of the Air Force, the Department of Defense, and the Atomic Energy Commission. Stanley is a graduate of Princeton University.

On the whole, unions have shown little interest in examining methods except where they have taken up the cause of citizens whose educational experiences do not prepare them to excel on pencil-and-paper tests. In those cases unions would naturally prefer performance tests to examinations which involve verbal aptitude. The civil service office discussing this should be in a position to show that the tests used are valid for their intended purposes. Unions have also affected selection by pushing management to shorten probation periods. Such a change clearly limits management's freedom to discharge unsatisfactory employees.

When the government runs special recruitment and training programs for disadvantaged citizens of the cities, the unions are put in a somewhat difficult position. Union leaders support such programs both because of altruism and because they see the new recruits to city service as potential union members. On the other hand, union members do not want to see these less privileged citizens occupying a preferred position in selection and training in comparison to themselves. ("I had to take a civil service examination to get that job. Why doesn't he?" "We had to have high school diplomas before we could have such a job. Why don't they?") So acceptance depends on whether those recruited under the "new careers" and other comparable programs are regarded as allies or as threats to employees who are the real backbone of the union membership.

More important than all of these factors is the increased adoption of the union shop. Four of our localities (Hartford, Philadelphia, New Castle County, and Wilmington) provided this form of union security. The effect is that employment is limited to citizens willing to join unions—who may or may not be the best-qualified candidates. The effect is slightly less for the agency shop (Boston) under which employees, if not willing to be union members, must pay fees in lieu of union dues because they presumably benefit from union services.

PROMOTIONS

The unions' naturally strong interest in promotions is expressed in support of measures that favor inside candidates for jobs and limit management's freedom of selection. When a job above the usual entrance level is to be filled, they strongly prefer that promotion lists be used ahead of open competitive lists and departmental promotion lists ahead of service-wide promotion lists. These policies are reflected anyway in many civil service laws and procedures, perhaps to excess, so the union influence reinforces some preexisting rigidities. In some cities promotion lists are limited to the union bargaining unit. This provision may be another wave of the future.

Another point of emphasis, clearly consistent with the others, is insistence on "rule-of-one" certification. Even in some places where "rule-of-three" prevails, union pressures are directed toward selecting the top person certified unless there is some extremely compelling reason for not doing so. In effect, management has to show cause why the top eligible on the list should not be appointed.

In rating candidates for promotion, unions have rather consistently opposed the use of oral examinations and performance ratings, at least arguing for a reduced weighting to be given such factors, and for increased weight to be given to seniority. They would prefer promotion by strict seniority among those basically qualified for the higher job. Thus far, however, this last provision has been negotiated in only a few contracts. Where we did find it, the promotions were not to supervisory positions but to higher-rated nonsupervisory jobs (laborer to truck driver, truck driver to bulldozer operator) within the bargaining unit. In these respects unions are still supporting the merit principle but maintaining that senior employees have more merit.

TRANSFERS

There is little union interest in interdepartmental transfers except in cases where the union helps an employee move to another department because he is facing disciplinary action or is involved in a personality conflict in his present department.

The situation is different, however, with respect to transfers to new locations or to other shifts within a department. Unions would like to have assignments to preferred places or times made on a basis of seniority among those who request such assignments. We found this policy in a few contracts, but in general management has full freedom to assign employees where they are needed.

TRAINING

Unions have had two kinds of impact on employee training programs. First, they urge or even arrange training to help their members gain promotions, such as on-the-job training in operation of more complex equipment or group training to prepare for promotion examinations. In Detroit, for example, the Teamsters Union in cooperation with the civil service commission has arranged for drivers to learn heavy equipment operation. The Service Employees International Union in California is pressing for training of psychiatric technicians to meet new State licensure requirements. Second, management has had to train its supervisors in labor relations, sometimes with the aid of university professors. In general, however, training continues to occupy an unfortunately low position in the unions' scale of values, as in that of management.

GRIEVANCES AND DISCIPLINARY APPEALS

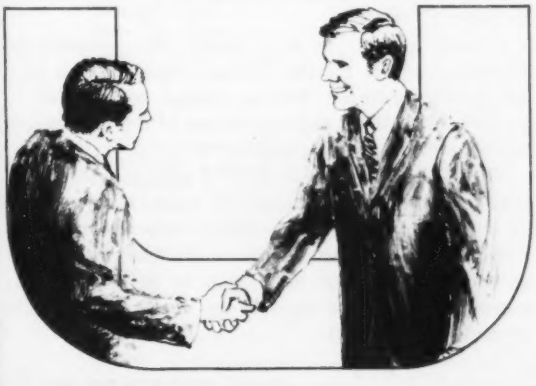
One of the clearest patterns to emerge from our field research is the trend in grievance procedures.

Most of the governments studied use negotiated procedures, usually going through four or five steps and ending in third-party arbitration, which is more often binding than advisory. This pattern replaces the usual grievance procedure which advances from lower to higher levels of management, ending with the civil service commission as the final "court of appeal." The arbitration provided in the new pattern may take various forms. A single arbitrator may be chosen from a list supplied by an impartial source. Or there may be a panel of arbitrators of whom the aggrieved employee (or his organization) appoints one member, management appoints a second, and the two agree upon a third, sometimes using nominations, again from an impartial source.

When we speak of grievances covered by these procedures, we are referring to grievances on supervisory relationships or working conditions. Work assignments and eligibility for premium pay are frequent subjects for such appeals. We are not referring to appeals of adverse personnel actions such as suspensions, demotions, or discharges. In most of the governments studied such adverse actions are still handled through civil service channels. A trend is beginning, however, to administer them like other grievances, and it is only a matter of time before adverse actions will be subject to arbitration in unionized urban governments. Without this change unions will continue to maintain that civil service decisions are made by pro-management bodies.

CLASSIFICATION

The position classification process—sorting jobs by occupation and level—is still a management activity but it is under several kinds of pressure from employee groups. Unions may claim that some jobs are undervalued in relation to others and urge, sometimes successfully, that they be upgraded. Unions also press for new job levels (e.g., supervising building custodian, senior caseworker) which will provide promotion opportunities for their members. Such claims and pressures may be expressed in the bargaining process. In Detroit and New York, for example, union and management bargainers have agreed on joint recommendations to civil service authorities.



A related problem arises from the insistence by unions that employees be paid at the proper rate for out-of-classification work. Sometimes there are difficult management determinations as to whether the employee really did work out of the classification, and for how long. Unions contend that differences over such matters should be resolved through the grievance procedure. In one of the cities we studied, however, the civil service authorities went to court to insist that such cases be settled under management's classification authority, not through the grievance procedure. Civil service lost this one.

PAY

In all but a few of the localities studied, pay changes are made as a result of collective bargaining. In one of the remaining cities (New Orleans) only part of the local government is covered by collective bargaining procedures. In still others (San Francisco and St. Louis) the urges of employees to have fatter paychecks are expressed through group pressures on the civil service commission and more intensively on the legislative body. This form of pressure may be just as effective as bargaining. In all these bargaining-for-pay situations the end result is resolution of a complex group of factors: surveys of prevailing pay levels; the skill and influence of the chief executive; the political and economic power of the unions; the responsiveness of the city council to all sorts of pressures; the attitude of the State government; and many others.

It is terribly hard to say whether unions are getting more for employees through bargaining or other pressures than less organized employees might have obtained for themselves. Another study will undertake to demonstrate statistically the extent to which effective unionization correlates with salary increases. Our own data are not conclusive on this point. We know, of course, that both union and non-union pay have risen impressively. Looking at our 19 governments as a whole (and it is very hard to generalize), pay rose 7 to 10 percent on the average in each of two years (1968 and 1969), when the consumer price index was going up only 4 or 5 percent a year. In a couple of these local governments where employees had not been given a raise for quite a time, they "caught up" with something like a 20 percent increase. There are also instances where work stoppages resulted in bigger raises than management had planned to agree to (examples: policemen in Detroit and sanitation workers in Dade County and New York City).

FRINGE BENEFITS

Fringe benefits, too, show great variation in local governments, depending upon charter provisions, management attitudes, and priorities of union objectives.

The clearest trends are those toward increased leave allowances, more generous financing of health benefits, and earlier, fatter pensions.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

It is clear that unions are here to stay, to grow, to become involved in more and more public personnel activities. Their influence is exerted now in many different ways but will increasingly be felt through formalized collective bargaining ending in written agreements.

In general, unions do not quarrel with the merit principle although their definition of merit may be a little different from that of management. They are inclined to question the ability of management to determine who is the best of a number of employees or candidates, particularly if there are rating differences of only a point or two. Unions will resist such fine distinctions and will favor seniority as a basis for assignment and promotion.

It is clear also that pressure from unions brings increases in pay and fringe benefits which will at least keep up with and may outrun the advances in the cost of living and perhaps in prevailing wages. The time will come, however, when unions will have won the major gains that are possible in this area, and at that point one can expect them to turn their attention more aggressively to the make-up of work crews, the conditions of assignment to shifts, and other aspects of work assignment and supervision.

Public personnel jurisdictions will have to give a great deal of thought to the way in which they are organized to meet the ever-growing strength of employee organizations. It is clear that the "independent" civil service commission is waning in power and influence and that personnel departments (whether or not subservient to a civil service commission) will also decline in influence unless they can take on the labor relations functions, as they have done very satisfactorily in some places.

I am inclined to predict that ultimately governments will establish strong labor relations departments, part of whose work will be the personnel function as we have known it in the past. With or without such a change in organization, public personnel systems need strong and experienced hands to conduct collective bargaining, to deal with grievances, and to be management's voice in matters which go to arbitration.

In general, the relationship between unions and merit systems is dynamic and immature. We are only beginning to learn the lessons that private commerce and industry learned more than a generation ago. Urban administrators would be well advised to ponder some of these lessons, notably those which concern management's freedom to organize the work and to select employees for promotion to supervisory positions. Finally, management people at all levels need to display a mixture of resolution, ability to listen, decisiveness, and good will.

ADP BULLETIN BOARD

ADP BULLETIN BOARD

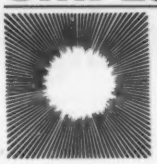
CSC's Federal Personnel Management Information System (FPMIS) program is gaining momentum. Procedures have been issued to Federal agencies calling for their submission of a 35 data element record on all of their employees before the end of May. Automated agencies are expected to submit these records in magnetic tape form. When received and edited, these records will form the basis for establishment of a new Central Personnel Data File at the Civil Service Commission. The file will be used as a new data base for processing and publishing survey statistical data, but more importantly it will provide the central management agencies with a more comprehensive array of statistical data on the dynamics as well as the current status of the 2.8 million Federal workers.

Another important FPMIS action was issuance of OMB Bulletin 72–7, "Policy of Deferment of Agency Personnel Data System Acquisition," on October 28, 1971. This bulletin requires agencies to defer new starts and major modifications of their automated personnel data systems during F.Y. 1973. Exceptions to this policy will be made only when fully justified. This important step brings the present proliferation of unique agency personnel data systems approaches under management control so that all future efforts can be directed toward the achievement of a fully standard, automated, and responsive Government-wide personnel information system.

Finally, a prototype of a totally new personnel information system for the Federal Government is now being conceptualized. Systems design is projected to occur in F.Y. 1973, and a pilot test of the new system is contemplated to take place in F.Y. 1974.

The four hard years of FPMIS planning are beginning to pay off. The actions now underway are geared to provide an early improvement in personnel information processing, an orderly redirection of on-going systems, and eventual installation of the uniform information system for meeting the needs of the entire Federal establishment.

EMPLOYMENT FOCUS



1970 GEOGRAPHIC SURVEY

According to results of the 1970 geographic survey of Federal employment, the Federal civilian work force decreased by more than 73,000 employees during 1970. The net decline from 1969 to 1970 was due to a Defense Department cutback of almost 107,000 employees, coupled with moderate gains in other departments and agencies. In the United States, all agencies combined accounted for an employment reduction of 40,000, with the Defense Department (down 76,000) again accounting for the net change.

The table below shows total Federal employment by State within Civil Service Region in the United States (along with Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands) and the net changes from 1969 to 1970. Employment in all ten regions decreased during the year, with the San Francisco region showing the greatest number of Federal employees (365,427) and the largest 1969–1970 decrease (9,599).

In general, States with larger percentages of their Federal population in Defense agencies tended to show the greatest losses. For example, in California, the State with the largest single decrease during 1970, more than 51% of Federal civilians worked in the Defense Department, while in Tennessee, the State which accounted for the greatest increase (2,376), less than 17% of Federal employees worked in Defense.

The Central Office, encompassing the Washington, D.C.–Maryland–Virginia Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, was up by 4,842 during the year, representing the only significant gain in the regions. Most of this increase may be attributed to the establishment and expansion of Federal environmental and social programs.

—Robert Penn

FEDERAL CIVILIAN EMPLOYMENT BY CIVIL SERVICE REGION AND STATE, DECEMBER 31, 1970

Region and State	Number of Employees 1970	Change from 1969
Total Federal Civilian Employment	2,874,962	−73,042
Outside the United States	199,702	−32,764
United States (incl. Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands)	2,675,260	−40,278
Atlanta Region:	(363,813)	(−5,552)
Alabama	54,308	−1,241
Florida	69,343	−659
Georgia	73,764	−3,313
Kentucky	34,685	−1,063
Mississippi	20,278	−533
North Carolina	37,331	−761
South Carolina	29,301	−358
Tennessee	44,803	+2,376
Boston Region:	(122,737)	(−2,993)
Connecticut	20,440	+736
Maine	15,077	−942
Massachusetts	63,481	−2,659
New Hampshire	5,467	+319
Rhode Island	14,619	−460
Vermont	3,653	+13
Chicago Region:	(360,359)	(−3,786)
Illinois	110,726	−2,206
Indiana	44,447	+1,375
Michigan	53,436	−664
Minnesota	29,286	−182
Ohio	96,922	−2,075
Wisconsin	25,542	−34
Dallas Region:	(266,700)	(−7,376)
Arkansas	16,561	− 63
Louisiana	27,586	−644
Oklahoma	52,836	−3,396
New Mexico	25,051	−254
Texas	144,666	−3,019
Denver Region:	(113,344)	(−787)
Colorado	42,314	+743
Montana	10,292	+62
North Dakota	8,051	+308
South Dakota	9,251	−89
Utah	38,250	−1,851
Wyoming	5,186	+40
New York Region:	(253,871)	(−4,477)
New Jersey	65,870	−2,172
New York	177,834	−2,687
Puerto Rico	9,786	+352
Virgin Islands	381	+30
Philadelphia Region:	(291,685)	(−7,533)
Delaware	4,719	+6
Maryland	62,032	−1,276
Pennsylvania	137,693	−3,048
Virginia	73,962	−3,466
West Virginia	13,279	+251
Seattle Region:	(99,308)	(−2,400)
Alaska	14,481	+164
Idaho	8,155	−3
Oregon	24,109	+281
Washington	52,563	−2,842
San Francisco Region:	(365,427)	(−9,599)
Arizona	27,502	+787
California	303,536	−8,660
Hawaii	26,338	−1,449
Nevada	8,051	−277
St. Louis Region:	(120,514)	(−617)
Iowa	18,067	----------
Kansas	22,329	−247
Missouri	65,028	−635
Nebraska	15,090	+265
Central Office: Washington, D.C.-Md.-Va. Metropolitan Area	317,502	+4,842

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There are many ways different cooperate for better service to the trate creative approaches to servin two widely separated sections of the are resulting in improved service With the impetus provided by the F and the passage of the Intergovern ernments at all levels will be drawn the benefit of all our citizens.

DENVER'S INTERGOVERNMENTAL JOB INFORMATION CENTER

by F. Arnold McDermott

The Denver Intergovernmental Job Information Center—the first of its kind in the country—opened its doors on October 3, 1968.

Five organizations joined together—Metropolitan State College, Federal Postal Employees Association, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Denver Career Service Authority, and Colorado State Personnel System—to provide a one-step clearinghouse for public jobs in the Denver metropolitan area. Establishment of the Center, which is housed in Metropolitan State College, makes the process of finding a job much simpler, as well as avoiding duplication in recruiting procedures by the various government employers in the region.

During its first year of operation, the Center helped 3,084 persons seeking information and guidance about government jobs. The second year, four times as many persons were served, for a total of 12,447.

Referrals are made not only to Federal, State, and City governments but to the surrounding cities and towns in the metropolitan area, including Lakewood, Englewood, Wheatridge, Boulder, and others. In all, 94 separate hiring agencies—city governments, independent boards and commissions, school districts, the State government, sewage treatment plants, courts, Federal agencies, county governments, libraries, and others clear their jobs through the Center.

The Center does no testing or official screening—this is done by the agency the applicant is referred to. But the counseling service provided at the Center by borrowed counselors from the Colorado Department of Employment has paid off for the hundreds of people hired each year as a result of Center referrals.

The offices of the Center are but a stone's throw from the Denver City and County Building and the State Capitol. But all activity does not occur here. Center representatives have held "mini job fairs" at the community action centers in depressed areas of Denver to assist disadvantaged and minority groups in obtaining government employment. A year ago, the Center sponsored a workshop on "Employing and Supervising the New Work Force" for Federal, State, and City supervisors and intensive sessions were held in recruitment, testing, training, and understanding of disadvantaged people who seek and obtain government employment.

Recently the Center joined forces with the Governor's Committee on Jobs for Veterans to assist in a big metropolitan push for veteran placement. The Center has been active in Veterans Job Fairs as well.

The Center continually attempts to promote careers in government and during the last two years has been instrumental, working with the National Civil Service League, in organizing an annual awards ceremony for government employees who perform outstanding service as well as for citizens who have made significant contributions to their community.

The Center's staff consists of a director, senior employment counselor, secretary, and interns provided by Federal, State, and City governments. Funds have been provided by the Federal Postal Employees Association to pay for staff; Metropolitan State College provides

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MR. McDERMOTT is Personnel Director, Career Service Authority, City and County of Denver, and one of the founders and first Chairman of the Board of Directors, Intergovernmental Job Information Center. He is a past President of the Public Personnel Association and has long been active in programs to improve intergovernmental cooperation in the personnel field.

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e job-seeking public

different units of government can e to the public. These articles illus- to serving the job-seeking public in ons of the country. Both approaches service at substantially less cost. by the President's New Federalism tergovernmental Personnel Act, gov- be drawn into closer partnership for ns.

. . . AND THE HARRISBURG CENTER

by Milton I. Sharon
Philadelphia Regional Director
U.S. Civil Service Commission

From its beginning in May 1969, the Intergovernmental Job Information Center in downtown Harrisburg has been a mecca for job seekers from all over central Pennsylvania. Housed in the Federal Building, the Center is jointly operated by the U.S. Civil Service Commission and the Pennsylvania State Civil Service Commission.

Major employers serviced by the Center include the Pennsylvania State government with 12,000 employees in Harrisburg and 110,000 Statewide, and such Federal establishments as the Navy and Defense Supply Agency offices in Mechanicsburg, the New Cumberland Army Depot, the Army War College in Carlisle, the Veterans Administration Hospital in Lebanon, the Indiantown Gap Military Reservation, and State headquarters offices for the Federal Highway Administration, the Soil Conservation Service, the Social Security Administration, and others—employing about 15,000 persons in all. Local government participation thus far has been limited to the city of Harrisburg for its merit system positions.

The idea of a joint information facility had been brewing for some time, but it was not until early in 1969 that the right opportunity presented itself. A new Federal building was being completed just across the street from the State office building complex, and suitable space was available.

This was all that was needed to spur quick action. The fine points were worked out between the USCSC Philadelphia Region, the State of Pennsylvania Civil Service Commission, and the State Office of Personnel. The old Federal information and examining point, which the U.S. Civil Service Commission had operated, office space and equipment; and various agencies provide intermittent staff and other resources.

Besides information on tests and job openings, the Center provides application forms of cooperating government agencies and maintains up-to-date records on job specifications and salary schedules for positions at all levels of government.

Job openings are announced over local radio and television stations and an active program is carried on with high school and college students in the metropolitan area to inform them of government careers.

Placements have been made in a broad range of occupations, including accountant, deputy sheriff, construction engineer, dietitian, counselor, data collector and coder, caseworker, teacher, stenographer, etc.

The Intergovernmental Job Information Center has received two Department of Housing and Urban Development awards, one regional and one national, for its outstanding contributions to intergovernmental relations. HUD Assistant Secretary Samuel C. Jackson, in the national award citation, said, "Your entry in this year's competition is indicative of how initiative, cooperation, and sound program execution can improve the living environment of our citizens and meet the challenge of urban growth."

The Center is now preparing for a new phase in its development—establishment of a research unit to compile data on characteristics of job applicants coming into the Center and to develop a long-range forecast of area manpower needs at all levels of government.

It is also hopeful that it will bring cooperating governmental jurisdictions together in joint testing procedures, the development of common job specifications, and the exchange of personnel.

closed its doors and the Federal-State Center opened on the ground floor of the new building.

Significantly the Center is staffed by employees of both the Federal community and the State of Pennsylvania. Information supplied by the Center staffers runs the gamut of what the job seeker needs: Federal and State exam announcements, application forms, information on job requirements, examination procedures, veteran preference, transfer, and reinstatement.

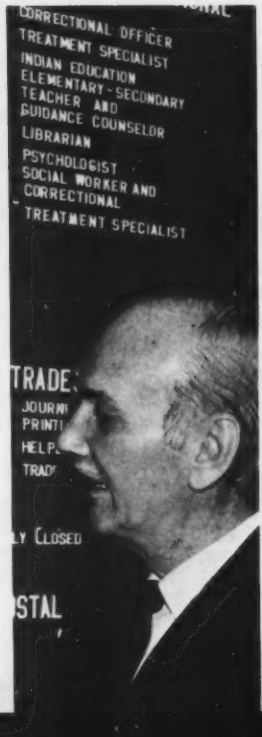
But this is only part of what this Center does. Counseling and referral services are provided, and evaluations of experience and qualifications for Federal and State jobs are made.

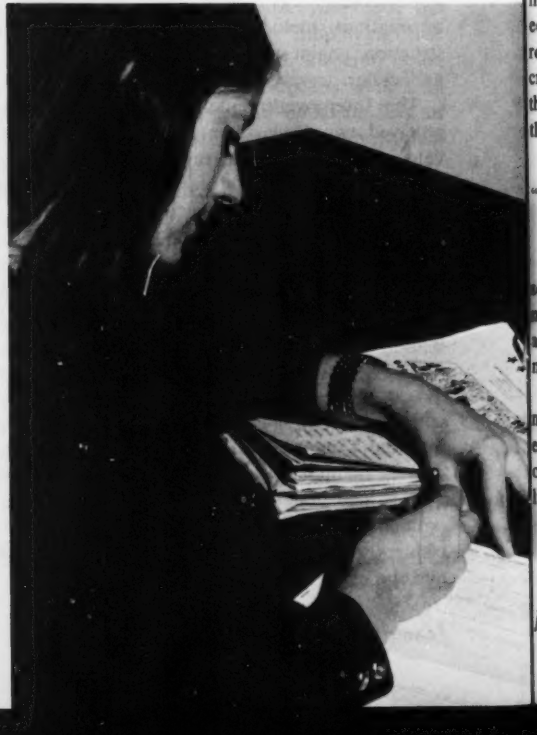
This Center is also used as a testing facility for State and Federal jobs. Especially noteworthy in this regard is the joint testing program for entry-level typists and stenographers developed by the USCSC's Philadelphia Region and the State of Pennsylvania. The City of Philadelphia has also joined in this program. Passing the test is the passport to qualifying for a stenographer or typist position in the Federal Government, the State of Pennsylvania, and the City of Philadelphia. All the "passer" has to do is send the notice of rating with the test score to any of the governments where he or she would like to work. The passer's name goes on the list of eligibles, with the rank determined by the earned rating.

The Center has been giving a great deal of attention to the job needs of returning Vietnam veterans, and has helped many toward a new career. Returning servicemen with medical experience have been placed in the VA Hospital in Lebanon; others with military specialties have been placed in trades positions at the New Cumberland Army Depot and in Navy and Defense Supply Agency activities in Mechanicsburg. In the State government there have been numerous placements, particularly in the Department of Industry and Labor.

A typical week's activity at the Center includes providing personal assistance to 250 visitors, answering 150 telephone inquiries and 50 written inquiries, and holding four tests for such jobs as clerk, court reporter, or Junior Federal Assistant.

The Harrisburg Center has opened the way for closer cooperation between the Federal Government and State government in the interest of greater convenience to the job seeker and better government staffing. In the years ahead it should lead to even greater sharing of opportunities and facilities not only between Federal and State governments but also with local governments.





SCENES FROM AROUND THE DENVER AND HARRISBURG CENTERS

Pictured here is a sampling of what goes on in and about the Denver and Harrisburg Job Information Centers. In the top right photo, F. Arnold McDermott holds the award presented by HUD for outstanding contributions to intergovernmental relations (Governor Love of Colorado at right). In the photo directly above, Milt Sharon, CSC's Philadelphia Regional Director (*r.*) and other dignitaries are shown at the ribbon-cutting ceremony that launched operations at the Harrisburg Center.

INTERGOVERNMENTAL PERSPECTIVES

WHAT IS "FAR"?

"Many of the disappointments and frustrations of the last several years can be blamed on the fact that administrative performance has not kept pace with legislative promise."

The speaker was President Nixon, the occasion was the inauguration of the Federal Assistance Review program (FAR) on March 27, 1969.

The FAR program is a 3-year plan initiated by the President to streamline the delivery of government services to the people. The Office of Management and Budget is operating as the coordinating office in seeing that this task is accomplished.

IN FINAL YEAR

We are now in the third and final year of FAR. The ultimate goals are being reached—greater reliance on State and local governments, decentralization of Federal personnel to the field, standardized and simplified grant requirements and procedures, elimination of red tape. All are designed to create a responsive partnership among the three levels of government.

On January 5, 1971, the Intergovernmental Personnel Act (IPA) was passed and has become the cutting edge for achieving many of the FAR goals. The IPA role is to advance the FAR objectives, especially increasing reliance on State and local governments through strengthening their personnel components so that they can function as more effective partners.

"FAR" AND IPA GOALS

The very nature of IPA's programs—improving personnel competence and understanding through grants, mobility of personnel, technical assistance, training, and cooperative recruiting and examining—are synonymous with the goals of FAR.

The U.S. Civil Service Commission, as the implementing agency for IPA, has therefore assumed an expanded role in developing and realizing the broad objectives of the President's New Federalism as established through the FAR program.

—Lea Guarraia

LEGAL DECISIONS

EEO—RETROACTIVE PAY

One of the problems of the equal employment opportunity program has been that the appellant who successfully proves past discrimination is able to secure only future relief. This is so because of the lack of authority to make a personnel action retroactive. Two recent decisions (October 15, 1971) by the Court of Claims may alleviate even though they do not completely solve the problem.

Chambers v. *United States* involved an applicant. The court said: "We are confronted with a situation where defendant admits that it discriminated against an applicant because of race and but for that discrimination she would have been employed at a particular grade and salary on March 17, 1967. Presumably she met all proper qualifications. Presumably there was a vacancy and funds to pay the applicant were available. Presumably her selection would not have required resolution of any open discretionary question in her favor. The sole question for our determination is whether, in the circumstances, E.O. 11478 provides a legal basis for awarding back pay to such an applicant for Federal employment. We hold that it does."

The court suspended action in the other case, *Allison* v. *United States*, which involved discrimination in promotions, to allow plaintiff to apply for administrative findings, but indicated that the same principle would be applicable to promotions.

What the cases hold, then, is that under the equal employment opportunity Executive orders an applicant who is denied appointment or an employee who is denied promotion because of racial discrimination is entitled to back pay when it is practicable to make a determination that he would have been appointed or promoted on a certain date, and no administrative discretion remains to be exercised.

EEO—PRIORITY REFERRAL

While the Court of Claims was opening the door in the *Chambers* and *Allison* cases, the Court of Appeals, Eighth Circuit, was firmly shutting it on another type of remedy in *Carter* v. *Gallagher*, September 9, 1971. The district court, finding that discriminatory practices existed in the Minneapolis Fire Department, had directed that the next 20 firefighters appointed be "minority persons." The Circuit Court said that this directive would result in discrimination based on race and would

violate the Fourteenth Amendment, which proscribes "any discrimination in employment based on race, whether the discrimination be against Whites or Blacks."

QUALIFICATIONS—CITIZENSHIP

On November 9, 1971, a three-judge panel in the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York ruled that a State law establishing United States citizenship as a requirement for employment in the competitive civil service of New York violated the rights of resident aliens to the equal protection of the law that the Fourteenth Amendment guarantees (*Jorge* v. *Sugerman*).

There are two cases pending in circuit courts in which a similar provision (by regulation, 5 CFR 338.101), with respect to Federal employment, has been upheld by district courts. What effect, if any, the New York decision will have on the Federal sector remains to be seen.

HOMOSEXUAL CONDUCT

In *Ulrich* v. *Laird*, the District Court for the District of Columbia ruled on September 17, 1971, that the suspension of the security clearance of plaintiff, an admitted homosexual, because he refused to answer detailed questions about his sex life was unlawful. The questions invaded his right to privacy and the nexus between the questions and a determination of his ability to safeguard classified information was not shown.

On the other hand, the Eighth Circuit in *McConnell* v. *Anderson*, October 18, 1971, upheld a University Board's refusal to appoint a homosexual to a librarian position on the ground that his "personal conduct, as represented in the public and University news media, is not consistent with the best interest of the University." This is understandable—a librarian's life must be an open book.

—John J. McCarthy

TRAINING DIGEST

TRAINING COST MODEL

CSC's Bureau of Training has developed an effective training cost model which will soon be available for general use. The model has been extensively tested and validated in ongoing agency training programs. Informational material and user training courses will be available starting in February 1972.

The model provides a step by step process for accurately predicting the cost of a proposed training course. Alternatively, it may be used to reconstruct the cost of past courses where accurate accounting data are not available. The model has an easy-to-use format based on simple work sheets and cost data tables.

The Bureau of Training foresees widespread acceptance of the cost model based on its many uses. The model may be used for:

- costing out different training formats
- comparing training with alternative problem-solving methods
- providing accurate, performance-linked budget inputs for training
- standardizing training cost elements
- providing a sound basis for including training as a positive element in agency strategic planning.

Information on the training cost model will be available in three formats: A multi-page descriptive brochure, a 1-hour visually augmented briefing session, and a 1-day workshop for prospective users of the models. #

CSC CHECKLIST

A selection of recent CSC issuances that may be of interest to agency management:

• FPM Letter 296–15, Preappointment Packages:

—Transmits advance copy of new FPM chapter 296 on the use of preappointment packages, newly designed kits containing informational material and forms to be completed by agency new hires before entrance on duty.

• FPM Letter 412–1, Guidelines for Executive Development in the Federal Service:

—Provides guidelines for establishing programs directed toward the development and improvement of career executives and gives a timetable for implementing the programs.

• FPM Letter 711–34, Basic Changes in the Federal Labor-Management Program:

—Transmits the text of Executive Order 11616, which amends Executive Order 11491, and the texts of the 1969 and 1971 reports to the President on the program.

• FPM Letter 771–6, Changes in Regulations Governing Grievance Systems:

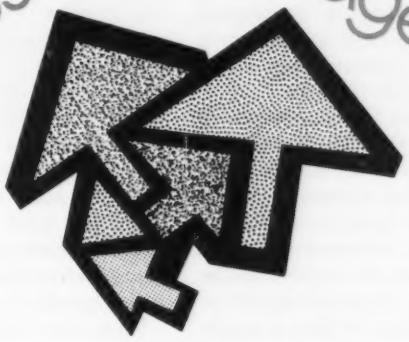
—Amends civil service regulations to reflect changes in grievance procedures brought about by amendment of Executive Order 11491 by Executive Order 11616.

• CSC Bulletin 792–2, Drug Abuse: Employment Consideration:

—Points out the steps that agencies can take to screen applicants for employment who may be drug abusers and the actions that should be taken when changes in an employee's work and the development of personality problems appear to indicate drug abuse.

—Mary-Helen Emmons

WHERE THE SUPERVISOR FITS
a bonus for management



by A. Di Pasquale

THE IMPORTANCE of the management function has been heavily underscored by this Administration. Indeed, its Office of Management and Budget was designed to help promote a keen awareness that effective management is critical to the conduct of Government business. The reference is to all managers, for while top executives most resemble the visible portion of an iceberg, the large mass of the management team, although lying submerged, is unquestionably no less important.

In management circles we are familiar with the concept that policies and major decisions emanate from the top echelons. We also acknowledge that policies must be made known and must be pushed "from the top to the bottom," meaning, of course, that middle as well as first- and second-line supervisors must be made privy to these policies or decisions, if meaningful or successful implementation is to take place.

One of the major flaws in the successful working of this philosophy of management is that in many cases "lower" management is not always fully included in the managerial mainstream. The chain of communication develops a weak link, so that too often the bottom group is "hung" between the area where management ends and the rank-and-file begins.

When Executive Order 11491 on labor-management relations in the Federal service came into being, one of its major revisions delivered a bonus to management. The order separated out "supervisors" from those employees otherwise covered by that order. In essence, supervisors were declared a part of management and accordingly were excluded from representation by a labor organization and precluded from engaging in the business of a union. But 11491 does say in clear language that "an agency shall establish a system for intra-management communications and consultation with its supervisors." The purposes are obvious, namely, "to bring about the improvement of agency operations, working conditions of supervisors, the exchange of information and improvement of managerial effectiveness. . . ."

If some construe the order as bestowing added benefits to employees and the house of labor, careful reading will reveal that section 7(e) extended a *quid pro quo* to management by returning supervisors to the management fold. The price is most reasonable: make these supervisors *in fact* part of the management team.

This change-about is not a semantic maneuvering. The order recognizes further that the supervisor is an arm of management and one who has authority ". . . to hire, transfer, suspend, lay off, recall, promote, discharge, assign, reward, or discipline other employees or responsibly to direct them, or to evaluate their performance, or to adjust their grievances, or effectively to recommend such actions . . . ," provided, of course, that the exercise of such authority "is not of a merely

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routine or clerical nature, but requires the use of independent judgment."

If such a definition characterizes a supervisor, then he cannot be deemed some kind of reserve component not directly linked to the management structure itself.

Ironically, once supervisors were cut loose from the coverage of the order, the admonition or mandate that they be given intra-management consideration and rights could be considered superfluous. Even if the order did not contain an "intra-management" clause, management would have the obligation to integrate this group into the management team if the separation of supervisors and subordinate employees were not to be an illusion rather than a practical necessity.

Anyone who has had experience in the operation of an industrial plant well knows that the supervisor—the foreman, the general foreman, or any similar namesake—constitutes what is sometimes erroneously called the "expediter." He supervises the day-to-day operations and the work that needs to be performed; he holds direct contact and supervision over the workers; in the eyes of his subordinate workers, he is the "boss"; he helps convert the raw materials into finished products or machines, helps assemble the parts to make the whole.

More specifically, he sees to it that the workers have the equipment to do the work, that they have the proper surroundings to work in, and that they have an organized team of fellow-workers. He is responsible for their being willing and capable of doing the work. He has the main responsibility of placement. Problems of schedules, manning, cost control, and timing often lie within his area of performance. In fact, the best projects or programs of top management would go awry were it not for skilled implementation by the "supervisors."

Added to that, the great resource of human labor could easily be misdirected, wasted, or rendered inefficient if first- and second-line supervisors did not have a clear understanding of an activity's operations, its structure, its goals, and its performance without which overall objectives could not become meaningful.

Just as top and middle management should assess the role of the first-line supervisor, how does the latter view his superiors and his role in the organizational team? Was he consulted or asked for opinions when a program was taking shape? Was he given the opportunity to make suggestions or offer practical alternatives? Did the programmers understand his capability to perform—or the manner in which he could or could not perform effectively? Was he given to understand the sense of urgency so that he could likewise communicate the emphasis and pride to his workers?

These questions suggest clarification of the "bottom-down" and "bottom-up" relationships. In this connection, Peter Drucker in his book, *The Practice of Management*, has this to say:

"The relationship between higher and lower manager is not just the downward relationship expressed in the term 'supervision.' Indeed, it is not even a two-way, up-and-down relationship. It has three dimensions: a relationship up from the lower to the higher manager; a relationship of every manager to the enterprise; and a relationship down from the higher to the lower manager. And every one of the three is essentially a responsibility—a duty rather than a right."

Some additional concerns of those on the firing line, so to speak, are the requirements to lead subordinate workers, earn their respect, and exact reasonable productivity out of their toil. These concerns are intimately related to the attitudes and regard higher management may have for supervisors. Recognition and appreciation are but two examples. Further, supervisors as a class do share common problems and interests and, like any other identifiable group of employees, often display a need to discuss or consult with superiors regarding their own working conditions and to maintain open lines of communication with those to whom they are responsible.

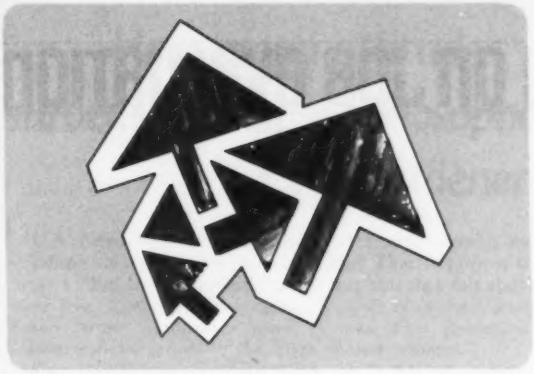
It is clear that the call for an integrated management team is not a one-way effort. There has to be some form of reciprocal regard. Supervisors themselves need to demonstrate an attitude that they in fact consider themselves as part of management—this by a showing that they can relate to management concerns, and by self-evaluation determine how well they are assisting in the successful implementation of the activity projects or programs.

They need to act affirmatively and represent themselves as managers. They need to resolve problems which lie within their bailiwick and not simply "buck them upstairs" for someone else to resolve. They must think management and act as a component part of that team. To do otherwise would simply abridge the three-dimensional concept of which they are a part.

It is unfortunate that the term "supervisor" often connotes something less than a manager. Drucker observes that the term itself describes the opposite of what the job should be. He believes that the term itself is such an impediment that it would be better to change it to "manager."

He concludes that the supervisor needs manager status. His job must be meaningful in itself. "It must be big enough to enable him to represent his men upward. He must hold such a position that management listens to him and takes him seriously. Indeed it could be considered *prima facie* evidence of poor organization of the supervisor's job if management has to make special efforts to give him a hearing—as so many do."

The supervisor is no hybrid. He is either part of management or not. If the Executive order so characterizes him and our managerial concepts do in fact recognize his status as a member of the managerial team, then intra-management communications and



consultation is but a first step toward the organization of a team, rather than a series of levels linked together mechanically. How activity management performs depends in the final analysis on its ability to get people to produce—that is, to work. The management of workers and work is therefore one of the basic functions of management. The supervisor who is closest to the actual work plays a key role in the attainment of management goals.

To bring about the three-dimensional relationship referred to by Drucker, certain evaluations must be made. With respect to a large agency, such as the Department of the Navy, the problem is complex, because commands, activities, plants, and industrial units differ in mission, organization, number of employees, and skills mix. Navy has not attempted to establish procedural requirements or formally prescribed standards. Any systems approach could result in the treatment of supervisors as a special problem area—or a distinct class of management not fully recognized as part of the management team.

Rather, Navy seeks to build the intra-management concept via the device of training in all aspects of the personnel program. Training courses in the fundamentals of management and supervision hold high priority. These courses are programmed for the senior as well as the middle line management levels.

At the local level, the commanding officer has the responsibility to integrate his team in terms of the operation for which he is responsible. How effective this training is at the local level is the area that calls for the greatest scrutiny. For example, if a member of the rank and file is promoted to supervisory status, what is the quality of training given him on "how to become a manager"? What understanding is imparted to him as to the alignment of his new relationship within the managerial chain? How does he become his own personnel man? And important, too, is the recognition and help those in higher levels owe him in terms of real assistance and appreciation.

The philosophy is quite well recognized. The deficiency lies in the uneven implementation and this is a concern for all Federal managers. Whatever levels of management a leader chooses to establish for his operation, such levels must not be compartmentalized or allowed to operate independently; they should interrelate so that all on the management team see, understand, and contribute to the total effort.

The promotion of intra-management building is perhaps the most formidable task facing the Government establishment. The intangibles are many, such as qualifications, expertise, motivation, dedication, leadership, and administrative ability. They all are part of any formula leading to intra-management cohesiveness. On the performance side, indices are more identifiable—for example, delineation of authority and responsibility, standards of accountability, exchange of information, effective communications, consultation, and coordination.

At a recent meeting of the Federal Management Improvement Conference, sponsored by the Office of Management and Budget, the Federal managerial structure was characterized as an "administered system" in contrast to the need for a "managed operation." While both are necessary to successful management, the aim is to balance more in favor of the managed operation and with less emphasis on the "system" application. In this connection it must be recognized that management consists of professional specialists who evidence a proven ability to manage. Once selected, assembled, and trained, the managerial team will begin to take shape and supervisors, as managers, will know that they are definitely a part of that organization. It is then that a managed operation will begin to pay off.

Task Force on Job Evaluation

APTES—AN EVALUATION SYSTEM

In the July-September 1971 issue of the *Journal*, we outlined the Job Evaluation and Pay Review Task Force proposal for a Clerical, Office Machine Operation, and Technician Evaluation System (COMOT) to cover the 525,000 nonsupervisory white-collar positions whose private sector counterparts are normally subject to the wage and hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Task Force has also developed an evaluation system to cover the complementary group, the approximately 600,000 nonsupervisory white-collar positions whose private sector counterparts are normally *exempt* from the wage and hour provisions of the FLSA—the Administrative, Professional, and Technological Evaluation System (APTES).

APTES, like COMOT, is designed to solve several problems existing in the present General Schedule classification and grade structure which, in the Task Force's opinion, cannot adequately be corrected simply by modifying the present system:

- Current grade alignments do not permit reasonable comparability with private industry in setting pay rates for many occupations.
- More grade levels of the General Schedule are used for some occupations than there are clearly identifiable levels of work.
- The present class standards have weaknesses: some are written in terms too general to be applied easily in specific situations; others do not define adequately the full range of levels or kinds of work in a given occupational series.

APTES employs a factor ranking technique with benchmark job descriptions and factor rating scales. Five factors have been developed: job requirements, difficulty of work, responsibility, personal relationships, and other requirements. The first four factors, while similar in title to those used in COMOT, are subdivided into elements which measure unique and relevant characteristics of APTES jobs. The last factor measures any special or unusual requirements or conditions of a job which add to the difficulty of the work but are not adequately considered by the other factors, e.g., unusual physical effort, mental concentration, environmental impact.

Thus far the Task Force has identified six skill levels within the APTES group, exclusive of purely trainee positions. Under APTES, trainee positions are not classified into skill levels, but rather are paid a percentage of the salary for the skill level of the lowest productive position in the occupation for which an employee is being trained.

It is expected that the Civil Service Commission will maintain control over the benchmark position descriptions: preparing those used on a Government-wide basis, and approving those prepared by agencies for their own unique positions. New benchmark position descriptions can be added with relative ease, permitting the system to respond to the dynamics of an ever-changing Federal work force.

National pay structures will be used for positions under APTES, in keeping with the labor market characteristics of these occupations in the general economy. For most individual positions, pay rates will be determined on the basis of a salary survey similar to that now used in establishing General Schedule rates. Those positions which fall under one of the Special Occupations Evaluation Systems (SOES) will have their pay fixed on the basis of individual incumbents' personal competence ranking. This is described in the October-December 1971 issue of the *Journal*.

However, even for those positions whose pay is fixed on a personal competence ranking basis, skill level evaluation under APTES can be a valuable management tool—e.g., in position management. Ideally the personal competence level of an individual will match the APTES level of his position. Some deviations from this general role are to be expected, and may even be desirable—e.g., in a training situation or during a period of reorganization. Evaluation of positions under APTES along with personal competence ranking under SOES will enable management to spot possible problems and to take corrective action if needed.

—Barry E. Shapiro

How many attitude surveys turn up a philosopher-poet? Or a gardener named Sod?

U.S. Army Support in Thailand put a new twist on the standard attitude survey when it invited Thai employees to enter a "Big Letter Contest" to find out how they felt about their jobs. Theme of the letters—"My Job With the United States Army"; judges—a panel of nine Thai employees; incentive—cash prizes to the three contest winners.

One of the prize-winning entries was from a man named Sod Chandryam—a laborer at Thailand's Camp Friendship by trade, but surely a poet and philosopher in disguise. Courtesy of the *Civilian Personnel Management Newsletter*, a publication of the Department of the Army, Office of Civilian Personnel, the *Journal* presents Mr. Chandryam. Laborer. Poet Laureate.

MY JOB WITH THE U.S. ARMY

I am a laborer—you can see me just about anywhere in Camp Friendship wherever grass grows. I swing a long-handled rod with a grass cutting blade at the end. Many people think I am a lonely person out there in the open field—all alone—just swinging away from morning till night. Although I'd rather be doing a job that is considered important from the standpoint of administration or a technical field—unfortunately, with my educational limitations, I was destined to perform work commensurate with these limitations.

So here I am wandering about the open fields; swinging my grass cutting device BUT NOT REALLY ALONE: I have visitors all day long—many far more interesting than some people who work in shops and offices meet or see. The birds sing to me and sometimes I feel that I understand what they are saying and sometimes they appear to understand me and my job. Occasionally, I will meet a friendly toad who will croak his tale of woe to me when I disturb his cool, grassy niche. Then, although on rare occasions, I'll meet the venomous snake whose acquaintance I shun—and the feeling is, of course, mutual. I've greeted thousands of Chinchooks, Tokays, field mice, and some little varmints whose identity are still a mystery to me.

Then after a long day of grass cutting and meeting these little animals, I come home and share all these fascinating events with my children who listen with eager excitement and go to bed satiated with the joys of learning about nature's living animals directly from "an expert" who deals with them and works with them in "his business." So, although I am called a "Laborer" in the records of the Civilian Personnel Office, I am an important person to those who know me more intimately—and they are my animal friends and my family who enjoy hearing stories about them. When you see that "Laborer" out there in the grassy plains—he is not as lonely as he may appear to some.

—Sod Chandryam

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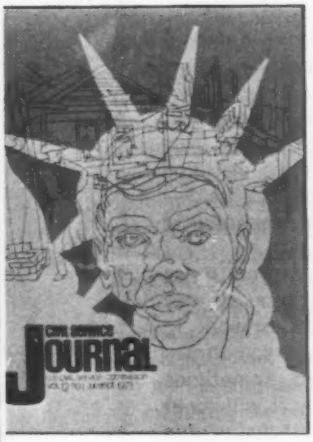

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WORTH NOTING CONT.

• PRELIMINARY REPORTS from 455 Combined Federal Campaigns conducted throughout the Nation in 1971 indicate that the campaigns generally have gone well. The previous year, CFC's were conducted in only 226 localities, so the total number more than doubled in 1971.

Although nationwide results are not in at press time, National Capital Area reports show the $8.8 million goal has been exceeded, with pledges of $8.9 million in hand.

• TAX-FREE $10,000 grants are given annually to winners of the Rockefeller Public Service awards for "distinguished service to the United States Government and the American people" in five broad areas of Government activity.

In the field of administration, two winners were named for 1971, the winners dividing the $10,000 grant. The two: Samuel M. Cohn, OMB, and Robert C. Moot, Department of Defense.

The winner for human resource development: Miss Mary Lee Mills, HEW. For intergovernmental operations: Joseph J. Sisco, Department of State. For physical resource development and protection: Luna B. Leopold, Interior. For professional accomplishment: Robert Solomon, Federal Reserve System.

The Rockefeller Awards were conceived and financed by John D. Rockefeller 3d, and are administered as a national trust by Princeton University's Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs.

• PRESIDENT NIXON has written to CSC Chairman Robert Hampton, expressing pleasure at the record results achieved during the last fiscal year in the Federal Incentive Awards program. Employee suggestions during fiscal 1971 resulted in $170,844,320 savings to the Government in reduced man-hours and equipment costs.

Meritorious performance on the part of 105,937 award-winning employees led to additional benefits of $173,949,083 to the Government. The President asked Mr. Hampton to convey his congratulations to every Federal employee who has been honored under the incentive program for a job exceedingly well done."

• PRESIDENTIAL MANAGEMENT Improvement Awards each year recognize a limited number of teams, organizational units, or individuals who have done the most to improve operating effectiveness in the Federal Government. This year's 15 awards were divided among 10 individuals and 5 groups.

Individuals honored: Tony M. Baldauf, Agriculture; Donald B. Moore, Commerce; Arthur M. Cronenberg, Army; Eric Stattin, Federal Home Loan Bank Board; William B. Macomber, Jr., State; John C. Ryan, AEC; Howard L. Chernoff, USIA; Gilbert E. Sanders, Army; E. P. Davitt, Navy; and Douglas C. Brooks, HUD.

Groups: Staff of the Associate Director for Land Reform, AID; the Second Air Force (SAC), USAF; Defense General Supply Center, Defense Supply Agency; Value Engineering Project Team (Louisville, Ky.), Navy; and a group of four Panama Canal Company employees.

• GRADE ESCALATION is the target of a number of ingenious and innovative plans, which have been developed by Government agencies to stop the steady increase in their average salary grades, and roll it back.

The Civil Service Commission is serving as a clearinghouse for the exchange of ideas looking toward a solution of this problem, and has provided all agencies with basic statistical data on grade trends.

The Commission is also providing advisory service and training in effective position management. In its evaluations of agency personnel management, CSC currently emphasizes a review of work organization, position management, and classification.

• LABOR RELATIONS: In this area also the Commission is carrying out its assigned function of providing technical advice and information to agency managers. The amendments to Executive Order 11491 are fully discussed in recent FPM letters.

Present Commission grievance regulations will no longer apply to negotiated grievance procedures, but only to non-negotiated agency grievance systems.

The Commission is beginning a review of all its regulations and policies to identify Federal Personnel Manual materials that may be limiting the scope of labor-management negotiations to an undesirable extent.

A comparative analysis of all the E. O. 11491 amendments, with a discussion of the principal revisions and their implications, is included in FPM Letter 771-6, November 19, 1971.

The Commission's Labor Relations Training Center in Washington has developed training courses for Government managers to help them utilize the collective bargaining process effectively. Reimbursable courses developed at the center will be available both in Washington and in the field, since the courses will also be offered at CSC Regional Training Centers. A newly prepared catalog explains the general and specialty courses available.

—Bacil B. Warren

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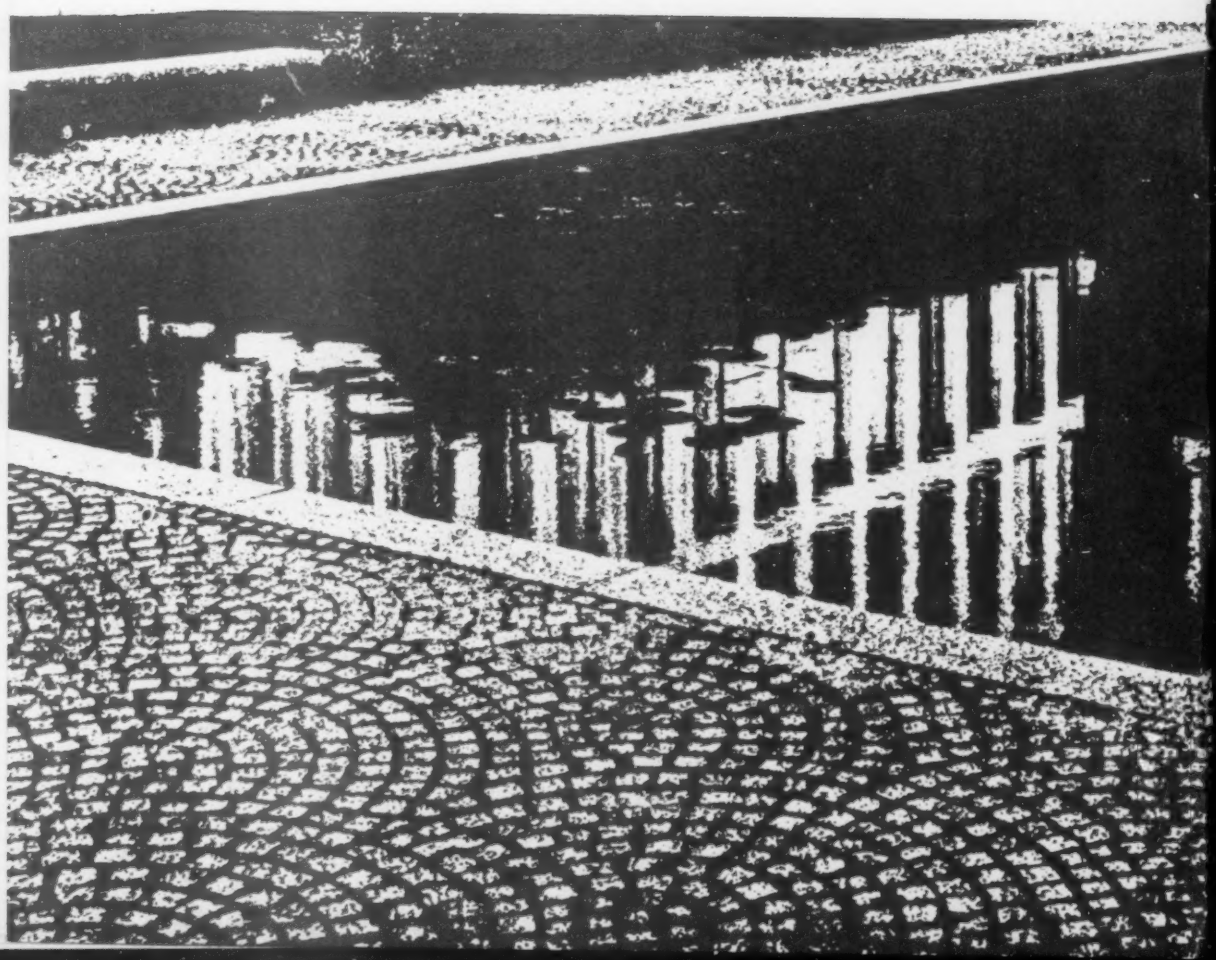
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